

**educational studies and documents**

**No 12**

# **Multiple-class Teaching**

by **John M. Braithwaite  
and Edward J. King**



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# Multiple-class Teaching

by John M. Braithwaite  
and Edward J. King

A Study  
of the Organization  
and Teaching Practices  
of One-Teacher Schools  
in New South Wales,  
Australia



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## PREFACE

Despite the overwhelming influence of the city on modern life, most of the world's population still lives in rural areas. The village school was probably the first agency to bring education to the broad masses of children, and in many countries it remains as important as the city school in the national scheme for compulsory education. It remains true also that the larger proportion of the world's children at present not provided with schooling is found in rural areas. There is nevertheless a tendency to overlook the special features, problems and virtues of the village schools and to base theory, staff training, curricula and administration more on the needs of the larger and more influential units found in the urban centres. Yet studies of rural school organization and programme needs are clearly necessary in any movement aiming to provide adequate school facilities for all children.

An examination of the situation of the rural children reveals that two principal courses of action are possible: consolidation (bringing the children to some central school by public transport or boarding arrangements) or maintenance of the small school. The virtues of each course of action have been vigorously debated in many countries; no judgment need be passed here on the question except to say that the relative merits of the two schemes need a great deal more study. For the present, the rural school exists, will probably continue to do so for a very long time, and must be taken into account.

One particular aspect of this school is the small unit - one- or two-teacher school - commonly found in thinly populated areas in most parts of the world. Naturally, such schools give rise to problems peculiar to their location and method of organization. As a group, they are extremely important since they accommodate a considerable part of the world's school-age population, even in countries as educationally advanced as Australia, Belgium and the U.S.A. For this reason a review of the literature on small schools was made recently in Unesco's Education Abstracts (Vol. VI, No. 5, May 1954). This study contained an introductory essay by E. Natalis, Professor at the Institut supérieur des Sciences Pédagogiques de l'Université de Liège, and included abstracts of relevant recent publications from a number of countries. The document showed that interest in the matter was widespread but that its literature is not yet rich enough in scientific data - it is in fact still at the phase of gathering descriptive case studies.

The present study should be read in conjunction with the issue of Education Abstracts mentioned above. Australia has a rich experience in the field of the one- and two- teacher school; yet it has produced little documentation summing up this experience. When the Australian National Commission for Unesco was approached, it appeared preferable to seek a first account of what had been done in one part of that country where the rural school played and still plays an important role in the school system and has reached a high level of achievement. Other countries have made their contributions to the particular problems of the rural school, and references to the literature on their experiences will be found in the bibliography to this study and in the issue of Education Abstracts cited above. Mention should also be made of The Training of Rural School Teachers published by Unesco in 1953, which contains case studies of current practices in Brazil, the Gold Coast, India and Mexico.

It is hoped that the present study will provide further suggestions for thinking and practice about the needs of the rural child, and aid educators developing similar programmes in other areas. Such exchange of technical information forms part of Unesco's programme for the full provision of free and compulsory schooling for the world's children.

As one who received his schooling from the age of 6 to 15 years in a one-teacher, multiple-class rural school, the Director-General of Unesco has a deep personal appreciation of the problems such schools pose, and wishes to thank the authors of the study which follows for their devotion and their competence. The authors are: John M. Braithwaite, M.A. and Edward J. King, M.A., both lecturers of Teachers' College, Balmain, New South Wales, Australia. He wishes also to thank the Australian National Commission for Unesco for commissioning the study.



## INTRODUCTION

In New South Wales, Australia, primary schools are graded in size from the large three-department school serving well populated areas to the small one-teacher school with an average attendance of ten pupils - sometimes less - to be found in the sparsely populated country districts. One-teacher schools are more numerous than any other class of school and, in this sense, may be regarded as typical of the country. The distinctive method of procedure in them is Multiple-Class Teaching, the subject of this study.

It will be shown that the procedures which the teacher in the small school adopted as a matter of necessity have of recent years been copied by teachers in schools with graded classes. No matter how children are classified in staffed schools, there is still a demand for group-teaching in order that the varying abilities within the class may receive special attention. For some subjects and for some periods each week, classes in the large schools of busy centres are taught by the same method as that used by the small school. The class in the staffed school is not considered as a homogeneous unit but is divided into sections which are taught as groups are in the small school. Thus, despite differences in size among the schools of New South Wales, there is a community of interest which derives in part from some common experiences - and in part also from the unifying effect of a centralized administration.

A "class" in our usage of the term means a group of children considered as a unit of instruction and organization. The children are grouped together because they have approximately the same scholastic attainments. The lowest class is "first class", in which children are enrolled when they attain their sixth birthday.

Under a scheme of Multiple-Class Teaching, classes may be grouped in divisions to suit the teacher's plans. A small school under one teacher may have a grouping of classes like this:

|                | <u>Lower Division</u> |    |     | <u>Upper Division</u> |   |    |
|----------------|-----------------------|----|-----|-----------------------|---|----|
| <u>Classes</u> | I                     | II | III | IV                    | V | VI |

Another arrangement of classes would be the following:

|                | <u>Lower Division</u> |    | <u>Middle Division</u> |    | <u>Upper Division</u> |    |
|----------------|-----------------------|----|------------------------|----|-----------------------|----|
| <u>Classes</u> | I                     | II | III                    | IV | V                     | VI |

Children spend, normally, one year in each class of the school. The primary school course would be completed by most children at the age of twelve years. They then become eligible for some form of secondary education, which is determined after consideration of the scholastic record of each child, the child's preference for this type of school or that, and the wishes of the child's parents.

In the State of New South Wales public education - "free, compulsory and non-sectarian" - was established as a social service by the Education Act of 1880. This Act provided for the establishment of schools of varied types to serve the requirements of urban and rural areas. It placed the control of public education under a department of State supported by funds from the State treasury. The movement towards a public system of education was accompanied at the time by a quickening interest in democratic government. Thus the Act of 1880 proved to be the foundation stone of the extensive educational superstructure which has been built upon it, and the democratic movement in politics has resulted in self-government with conscious regard for the welfare of the governed.

In New South Wales the State holds itself responsible for educating its people requiring no local aid or control. Country schools are as efficiently staffed as city schools - a result which could not be obtained except under a centralized system of control.

The diagram in Appendix C shows the interrelationships of schools under the Department of Education. Three important principles determine a child's movement from level to level of the



hierarchy of schools. As they have a special bearing on the one-teacher school, an enumeration and some discussion of them may be considered relevant to this study.

The first principle is that no matter how a child enters the public school system a way will be open for him to reach its higher levels provided he has the ability to do so. This ensures that no one shall be impeded by reason of a seemingly unfavourable beginning.

A second principle is that no one should complete his schooling in the Infant or Primary school alone. Some form of secondary education suitable to the age, aptitude and ability of the child is necessary as a preparation for living in a democratic community and as a form of schooling in which adolescents should share. The application of this principle in the provision for the education of pupils enrolled for post-primary studies in the one-teacher school will be found of interest.

The third principle is that children should be encouraged by as many incentives as possible to pursue their studies and to remain at school as long as it is profitable for them to do so. Among the incentives offered in New South Wales are the following: travelling concessions, grants of books to schools and libraries, scholarships and bursaries, holiday camps with special instruction in general subjects and physical education, library services, evening colleges, and education by correspondence.

There is a close connexion between the political character of a society and the character of its education. Schools and colleges express the social order to which they belong by preparing youth for participation in its activities.



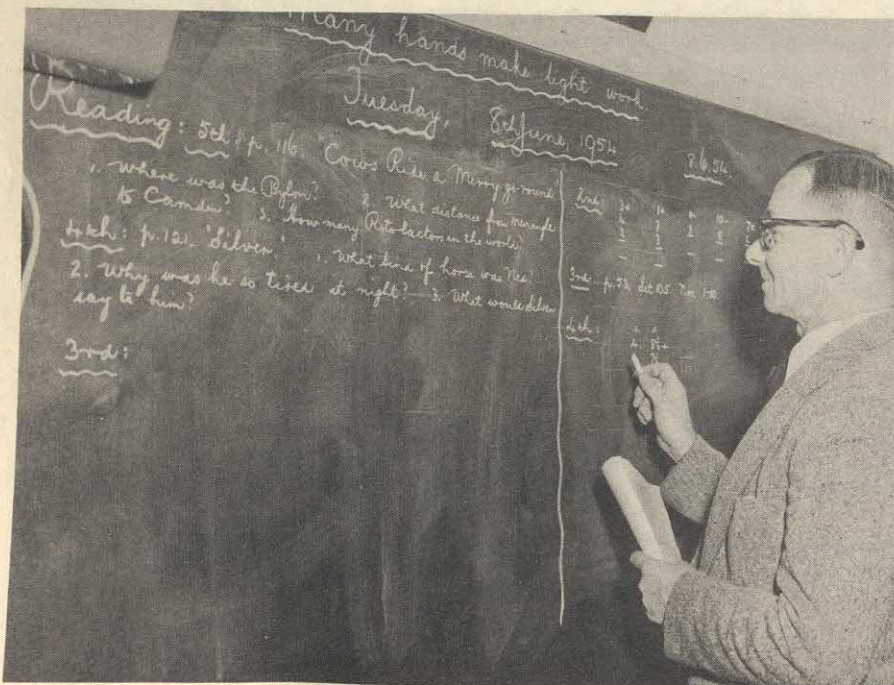
# Beginning the Day



1. A typical Small School Pupil



2. Coming to School



3. Preparing the Blackboard





4. The School Assembly



5. Team Games



6. Entering School



# The Day at Small Schools



7. Selecting Books for Reading



8. Project, using a Sand Tray



9. Playing «Shops»





10. Personal Hygiene



11. Lower Division, two-teacher school



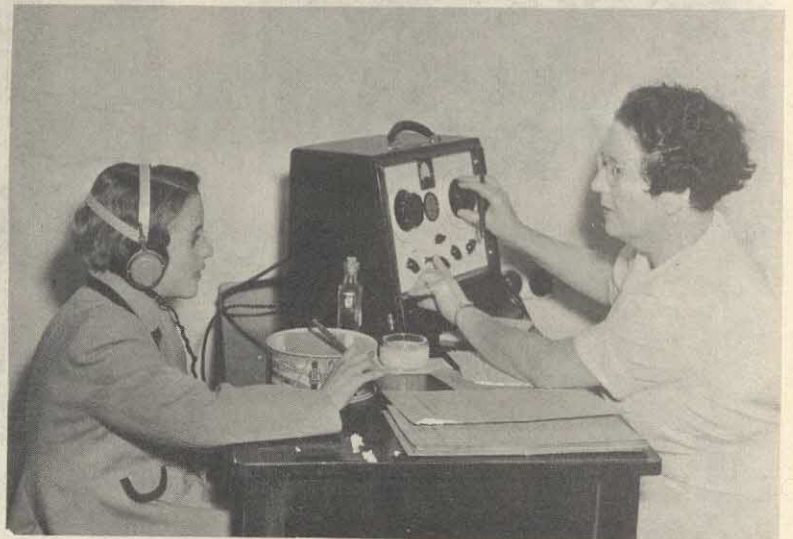
12. School is dismissed



# Activities to help the School



Meeting of the Mothers Club



14. Some Children need special  
Clinical Services



15. A Minister of Religion takes a Class







## Activities in the Open Air



19. Competition with Quoits



20. A Game with Softball



21. The School Trapeze





22. Running Game with Hoops

### 23. Nature Study - Directed Observation



24. A «Junior Tree Warden»





## THE ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

Before considering the main features of multiple-class teaching, it would be helpful to make a brief survey of the setting in which the work of the school is conducted.

### SETTING

Normally, the one-teacher school, if placed on a Departmental site, (i.e. one acquired for a school and the ownership of which is vested in the Minister for Education) occupies approximately four acres. This area provides ample room for the school building, toilet blocks, and perhaps a weather shed or a small enclosure for horses used by the children in travelling to school, and is sufficiently large to provide playing fields for the children - although of a rather crude form, unless local enterprise supplements Departmental resources in adding to the equipment. There is room for gardening - flowers and trees and, if climatic conditions permit, a small experimental plot. In some parts valuable work has been done in afforestation, mainly in the growth of pines, and in others, an interest has been fostered, in the school district and beyond, in the propagation of native plants.

The school building, if erected within the last ten years, follows a stock plan, which may however be modified to suit special areas and varying enrolments of pupils. One of the plans now in use is reproduced in Appendix B to this study. The following distinctive features may be seen. Provision is made for adequate natural lighting by windows placed to the right- and left-hand sides of pupils' desks. In most country areas where flies are a menace to health, windows and doors are fitted with wire screens. The classroom is entered through a porch in which the children leave their hats and coats. At one end of the porch is a small sink for washing. The porch often contains presses or cupboards for the storage of books and equipment. A small iron stove or an open brick fireplace provides for heating. The plan allows for a verandah, which in Australia is usually placed on the north side of the building. As may be seen from the arrangement of desks, this particular school accommodates 24 pupils.

If we looked at a one-teacher school newly erected, this is what we would see: a compact timber building with roof of galvanized iron, built off the ground on brick piers, the small verandah to the north. Two large water tanks are placed to catch the rainfall from the roof and provide water in the playground and in the porch. The building has been erected to make full use of whatever advantages the site affords by way of protection against prevailing winds, erosion or fire danger. The lavatories - either pan service type, or earth closets - provide privacy and yet allow for adequate supervision. Outside walls are painted in light colours - usually a cream or light stone, with windows and doors in a contrasting colour. Indoors, the colour scheme is usually pastel - deep cream to the dado level, then light cream to the ceiling, which is white, or near-white. Modern wall boards are green. If the older type of wooden (easel) boards are used, they are black. There is no special provision for the teacher's comfort. An enclosure could be made from the verandah in which the teacher's personal effects might be kept and to which parents might be taken for interviews.

### EQUIPMENT

The usual equipment for a small one-teacher school includes seats and desks of the dual type for the children. These are made in various sizes to suit the growth of children as represented by the three broad categories: infants (classes 1 and 2), middle primary (classes 3 and 4), upper primary (5 and 6) and post-primary. Although some of the seating units are designed for screwing to the floor in fixed positions, all may be adapted by simple devices for service as movable units. This is done in order to improve the presentation of lessons or make better use of the available space.

Stock cupboards are supplied for the storage of stationery, books, drawing materials, records, art and craft equipment. A teacher's table and chair, or a desk unit, are part of the furnishings. Each year the teacher in charge must furnish a requisition showing the materials and equipment he will require for the next twelve months. Goods available under the various service headings are shown on a standard form. In principle, there is no reason why a teacher in a small school should not apply for any equipment shown on the requisition provided he could make a case for the



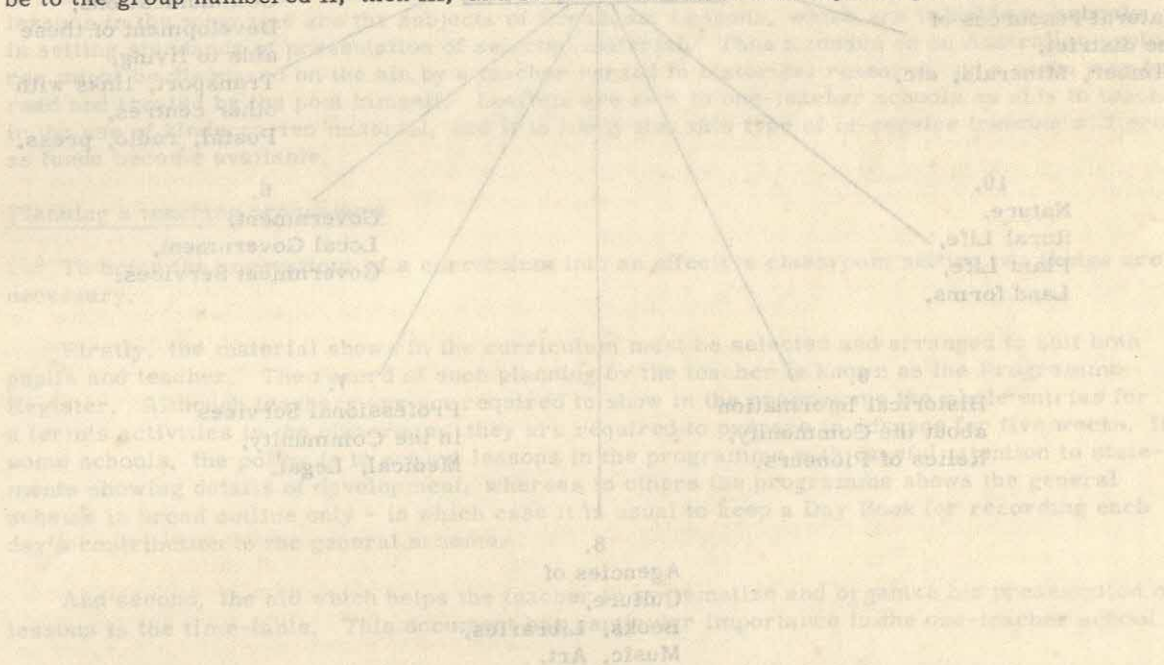
use of that material in his teaching. In general, all schools share equally in the supplies and equipment purchased by Government Stores, for the service of the schools.

## THE SCHOOL IN ITS COMMUNITY

While the main overriding responsibility for public education is a function of a State department, the local community is encouraged to take a lively interest in the schools in the district. Support may be given by local bodies in a variety of ways, e.g. by individual action, by committees appointed to promote particular activities such as a school library fund, by progress associations which include the school in their schemes for betterment, by associations of parents and citizens, etc. To all agencies, whether small or great, which take an interest in the schools, the Department of Education is generous in its support, both in guidance and subsidies. The ideal type of bond between school and community has been so well established in some districts that the school is virtually the community centre. The most common method of organizing local support for schools is to establish groups of parents and citizens in associations with well defined objectives.

The diagram on the following page gives a picture of the rural school in its community setting. From the homes in which children are taught their first lessons in living within the family circle, interests are gradually extended to schools and the contacts made possible through the schools' relationships with persons and institutes in the village and beyond. With proper aids in interpreting such a series of experiences in a setting which is understandable to the learner, an effective teaching programme may be designed to include all the aspects of man's social heritage.

A further point may be advanced in support of this approach to the study of the school in its setting, namely, that a selection from the items of interest may be made in terms of the children's growth and experience. Thus social studies, reading material, stories, may be for young children, associated with the group numbered I - Children's Homes. A natural progression would be to the group numbered II, then III, and so on to suit children's expanding ideas.

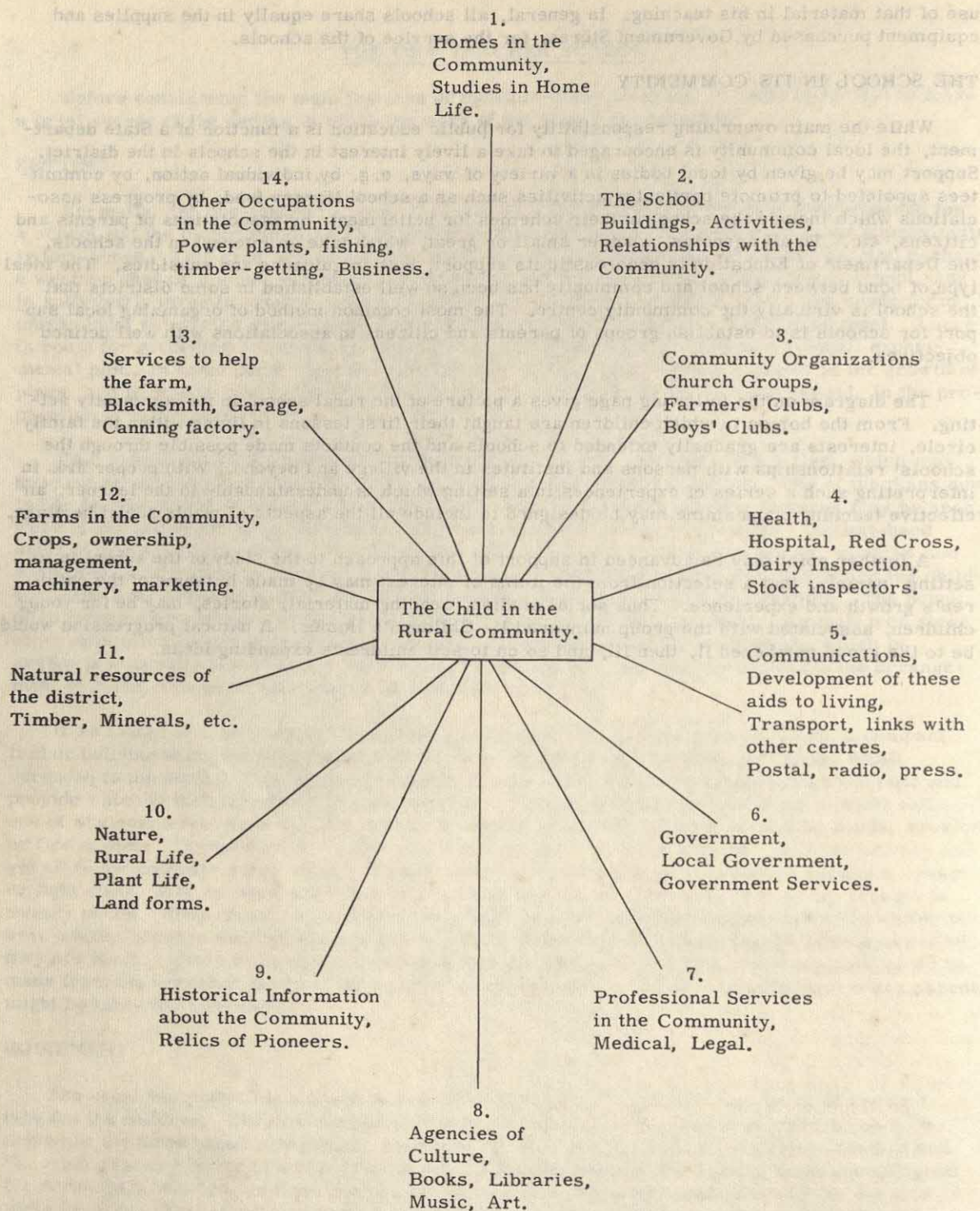


## THE TABLE

In order to help the school to develop its various branches, the following table is suggested. It is intended to be a guide only, and may be modified to suit the needs of the school.

From the point of view of the teacher, the table may be used to give the subject matter to be taught in each subject. The 'Primary School Curriculum' suggests a division of school time which may be used as a guide.





From Braithwaite, J.W., McRae, C.R., and Staines, R.G. Reform in the Primary School. Melbourne, A.C.E.R. 1943. (The Future of Education Series, No.4.)



## THE STUDIES OF THE SMALL SCHOOL

### THE PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The foregoing section raises the question of how the syllabus for country schools is determined. In New South Wales, primary school teachers are guided by the publication A Primary School Curriculum. This document, produced jointly by practising teachers, administrators, members of Teachers' Colleges and members of the Research Department, gives a graded scheme of teaching each of the primary school subjects. There is a valuable section devoted to the teaching of pupils in one-teacher schools, but the same standards are, in general, set for all primary schools in the State. The syllabus is suggestive rather than prescriptive and much is left to the initiative of teachers in using the resources of the school to satisfy the objectives proposed. Teachers are given considerable latitude in devising programmes of lessons. Suggestions as to the subject matter, the grading of lesson material, the methods of procedure and the use of books and material are given for each subject, class by class.

The Department of Education supplies to pupils in primary schools, wherever they may be, reading material in the form of pre-readers and readers for infant classes, and a monthly magazine for each class in the primary school. This basic reading material ensures a level of literary knowledge - vocabulary, stories, literacy expression - throughout the schools of the State. The magazine, issued monthly keeps children in touch with the current happenings, current writings for young readers - prose, verse and plays. Other reading material supplied to schools takes the form of library books and supplementary readers.

Within the last ten years there has been a great improvement in the selection of reading matter for schools and the way in which this material is presented - printing, illustration, binding - makes an added appeal. The stories belong to childhood and its interests in the world of the imagination, in the "here and now", in the realm of achievement by young or old. Some lessons in the magazine are the subjects of Broadcast Lessons, which are valuable to schools in setting standards of presentation of selected material. Thus a lesson on an Australian explorer might be discussed on the air by a teacher versed in historical research, or a poem may be read and treated by the poet himself. Leaflets are sent to one-teacher schools as aids to teachers in the use of kindergarten material, and it is likely that this type of in-service training will grow as funds become available.

### Planning a teaching programme

To bring the suggestions of a curriculum into an effective classroom setting two things are necessary.

Firstly, the material shown in the curriculum must be selected and arranged to suit both pupils and teacher. The record of such planning by the teacher is known as the Programme Register. Although teachers are not required to show in the programme the whole entries for a term's activities in the classroom, they are required to prepare in advance for five weeks. In some schools, the policy is to set out lessons in the programme with careful attention to statements showing details of development, whereas in others the programme shows the general scheme in broad outline only - in which case it is usual to keep a Day Book for recording each day's contribution to the general scheme.

And second, the aid which helps the teacher to systematize and organize his presentation of lessons is the time-table. This document has particular importance in the one-teacher school.

### THE TIME-TABLE

In order to supervise his school properly, and ensure that each section of it receives a share of his attention, the teacher should have a time-table. He may not be able to keep exactly to this time-table during a day's work, but he will certainly accomplish more and serve his pupils better if he uses one.

From another point of view a time-table enables the teacher to give the proper emphasis to each subject. The "Primary School Curriculum" suggests a division of school time which may



be expressed as the number of lessons per week on each subject, or the total time given to each subject, or the allocation of lessons on the weekly time-table. There is less chance of important, although sometimes difficult lessons being overlooked when a time-table is being followed - e. g. an elementary science lesson for which specimens are required.

It is obvious also that the time-table enables a teacher to plan for the development of his lessons - to open up a new subject, give practice in it, to apply it to the solution of practical problems, to test class achievement after a given period.

Most schools proceed with a rhythm somewhat as follows. New interests are released early in the week because so many "follow-up" lessons depend on this release. Thus, the new reading lesson and, perhaps, a new operation in arithmetic are begun on Monday. Lessons of the practice or study type, designed to develop and consolidate new topics, are placed on the following days of the week. By the end of the week the lesson subjects are reviewed by some form of test which is used for diagnostic purposes.

The main interests in the studies of the school are introduced by Wednesday so that children have an opportunity to become familiar with them before the week-end. A glance at the time-table in Appendix A will show how provision is made for "first treatment lessons", to be followed by practice and expression lessons. In the modern school, teaching-learning experiences do not occur in isolation. The process of integration in teaching, that is, of relating parts of the subject field of the curriculum into the most meaningful wholes, is well recognized by most teachers, even when the form of the class time-table may appear to be a conventional one. Thus a lesson in spelling, or language, may be given to deal with difficulties experienced by children in a written composition lesson. A lesson in social studies may be the starting point for library reading, research within the community, lecturettes, art and craft work.

The planning of a teaching programme and the use of a time-table in class teaching enable a teacher to make full use of whatever parts of his methods or content are common to a number of subjects. It is important that the curriculum of a school should be considered as a unity and not as a series of unrelated knowledge fields. While projects, themes and units of work are valuable methods for interesting the children, they have an additional justification in enabling the teacher to interpret his programme with economy and effectiveness.

#### "One-subject" and multi-subject time-tables

A small school is accommodated in a single room, where different groups of children are all at work. How can the weekly programme of lessons be arranged to the best advantage? There are two plans which deserve comment.

The one-subject plan has many advocates. According to this, one lesson subject prevails all through the school at any period. The following scheme would illustrate the plan:

| Classes           | 1                | 2       | 3                   | 4        | 5         | 6 | 7 |
|-------------------|------------------|---------|---------------------|----------|-----------|---|---|
|                   | Monday           | Tuesday | Wednesday           | Thursday | Friday    |   |   |
| 9.30 - 9.45 a. m. | - Morning Song - |         | Morning Talk        | Speech   | Exercises |   |   |
| 9.45 - 10 a. m.   |                  |         | Spelling            |          |           |   |   |
| 10 - 10.30 a. m.  |                  |         | Reading             |          |           |   |   |
| 10.30 - 11 a. m.  |                  |         | Practice Arithmetic |          |           |   |   |

The main point in favour of this plan is the community of interest in the school at any one time. Children may be moved from group to group according to their special needs. A good speller may go to a higher class and a weak one to a lower. Any special equipment which the school possesses may be put on display for the use of all. The "one-subject" time-table shows its weakness when subject interests are not the same all through the school and where the time unit shows marked variations. Another objection is that the time to be devoted to subjects does not remain constant all through the school. For limited periods during the week, e. g. during a time to be devoted to practice work in a selected topic, the one-subject time-table would work admirably.



The other plan is the multiple-subject plan. While one division is having a lesson in, say reading, a second division may be working at arithmetic under the teacher's guidance. Lessons vary from period to period according to the need to distribute the teacher's attention over all the classes in his school and to provide a suitable variation both of subject matter and methods of study - for example, a variation for oral and study methods. By having available a supply of work books, assignment sheets and occupational material, the teacher can plan interesting study periods for all classes.

The specimen time-table reproduced in this booklet and the report of a morning's work in a small school provide examples of multiple-subject treatment. It is important to note, however, that all the classes in the school may combine for such lessons as music, some oral work, and some practical lessons, such as craft. The children thus learn to regard themselves as part of the functioning school community, and the older and more skilled pupils are able to assist the juniors. The craft lesson is an illustration of such a situation when the pupils with better constructive powers, because of more developed muscular control, are permitted to assist younger pupils in plan making or in the processes of craft work.

### PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF ORGANIZATION

The Education Department of New South Wales does not provide class work books covering the subjects of the curriculum to one-teacher schools. Some schools are able to purchase class texts, should the teacher so desire, from Parent Association funds. It is unlikely, however, that children would receive work books for more than two subjects from the most generous of parent groups.

Such books\* might be a class text on language and composition, a practice book on arithmetic and a reader in the social studies suggested for the class. With such equipment there is little danger that teaching in small country schools will be dominated by set work books. Most teachers in small schools are aware that a combination of several methods is the best way of meeting the instructional problems presented by a group of children ranging in age from six to twelve years or more - and in classes from 1st to 6th. A review of the methods most commonly used in the one-teacher school may now be given.

#### ORAL LESSONS

The teacher plans his day's work to bring his guidance, before the children's work commences, to each division about to set out on new study. Thus, he may work some trial examples with a class before an assignment in arithmetic is set. He may review the set questions to guide a study of a lesson in a class reader. He may discuss with a class the best way of recording information collected during an elementary science lesson.

With junior pupils he must give numerous lessons himself, and he must supervise the occupational lessons, which, with the use of special materials, aim at the learning through building of "number facts", or the correct use of language forms, or the application of spelling rules.

Several times a week he takes the whole school or, alternatively the lower or upper division, for an oral lesson, or a story, or an inspirational talk about an historical event of national importance, or a local happening which merits special commemoration. The teacher's influence on his pupils through these oral lessons is considerable. He can inspire them by his attitude, his lesson material, his illustrative aids, and by the way he relates the content of a lesson to the

\* Typical books in use in classes are:

English: "Begin Here", "On the way up", "At the top" by Nichols and Miller.  
Angus and Robertson, Sydney, New South Wales.

Arithmetic: by H. Heath. Angus and Robertson, Sydney, New South Wales.

Social Studies: by D. MacLean. Shakespeare Head Press, New South Wales.

These books are simple texts with assignments for written exercises based on the lesson material.



problems and activities of the children. Much of what has been called the "socialization of the school" is developed through the teacher's use of oral group lessons.

## STUDY LESSONS

At times during the day children in the divisions of a small school must work by themselves while the teacher is occupied with class work elsewhere. The older and more competent the children are to read and interpret study guides and texts to which they refer, the more they will be proficient in work of this type.

In a small school, if a teacher uses a well organized study procedure, children should develop skill in dealing with assignments on texts, leaflets, objects or pictures. Some such work begins in class II when the children are approximately seven years of age. As a rule, an assignment on a text for young children should contain a considerable number of questions or problems, each specific, briefly worded and requiring a brief answer. Such questions might take the following form:

Write in your book where Grace Darling lived.  
What work did her father do?  
What was the name of the lighthouse?  
How many people were saved from the wreck?  
What did Grace Darling do?  
What did people say about her?

As children proceed through the school they should be trained to respond to "assignments" which become more comprehensive in character and therefore require fewer questions or problems to cover the text, e. g.:

1. Read paragraphs 1-3 and find out why Oxley thought there was an inland sea in New South Wales.
2. Read paragraphs 4-6 and find how the problem of the Western Rivers was solved.
3. On your outline map trace the track of Oxley. Mark in red the route followed by Sturt.

## TEACHERS' BLACKBOARD ASSIGNMENTS

It is a general practice in New South Wales for teachers to write blackboard assignments each day to guide the work of their schools. An example of this will be found in some detail in the section "The small school in session" later in this study. To supplement assignments, and as additional aids to individual work, or group work, two other devices should be noted.

## DRILL CARDS

Drill cards may be constructed by the teacher or older children for spelling, language usage, tables, arithmetic or reading. By recording on cards the practice and other material used for daily blackboard assignments, the teacher is able to preserve for class use valuable parts of his lesson preparation.

## STUDY GUIDES

There are many ways of setting lesson guides for children. They may be duplicated on the typewriter, or by hand with the aid of carbon paper or other mechanical devices. Some textbooks provide contracts or work book assignments, which cover the subject matter of the lessons. Such textbooks serve a dual purpose: they describe selected aspects of the subject matter being studied, and they offer activities by way of things to be done and problems to be solved.

Study guides may be planned to provide exercises for children of different abilities - one set for the slow worker, another for the average group in the class. Each child in the class group can work in his own way and towards a goal within his reach.

The modern school has discarded the arrays of charts which formerly adorned the walls of classrooms. Teachers keep their charts in folios and produce them when required. Part of a



child's training in a small school is to learn how to care for books and such materials and teaching devices: items must be checked before being returned to boxes, the boxes must be properly classified before storing, books and study guides must be replaced in the press.

#### DEVELOPMENT OF PUPIL ATTITUDES

Apart from the children's immediate response to their lessons, the teacher aims at developing certain attitudes and outlooks which are regarded as among the most important objectives in education. In a one-teacher school he tries to make his pupils industrious by training them day by day to use a planned programme to solve their problems. He encourages them to be resourceful in carrying out tasks by themselves. He expects them to accept responsibility in which they are competent to take leadership and in doing the work which is set for them. The social training obtained by living and working together in the school community and by the precept and example of the teacher, is, generally, more definite in its influence on pupils than it is in the bigger schools, where relationships are usually looser. There is much to be said in favour of the independent habits of study which methods in the small school foster in pupils. It is true, however, that no matter how well the text is written and how clearly the study problem is formulated, many young children will feel little confidence in their statements of results and will ask the teacher, "Is this right?" Hence the need for contact between teacher and pupils must be kept in mind even where independent attitudes are fostered.

In the State of Victoria teachers in small schools make use of senior pupils - called monitors - to assist in the teaching programme of the school. They work with junior classes in such subjects as reading, spelling, dictation, and help to correct written work. This practice has not been adopted in New South Wales, partly because of the interruption to the studies of the senior pupils, and partly because teachers are strongly opposed to any sort of monitorial system.

#### THE TEACHERS' MANAGEMENT OF A SMALL SCHOOL

There is such variation in the size of schools, in their setting and in their material resources, that uniformity in teaching and organization are not possible. But the following principles of management would be recognized by most teachers.

##### Supervision

When the teacher is engaged with one section of his school, he keeps an eye on pupils doing silent work elsewhere. Sometimes he asks a question. Sometimes he may call for completed exercises to be shown. By such devices all children learn that the teacher is interested in the work of all sections of his school, even when his attention appears to be fixed on one group. Ability to direct the whole school in an active learning programme is one of the most valued skills in the management of the school.

##### Direction of the lower division

Older pupils may be given some general direction to occupy them for a time, such as, "Read the questions written on the blackboard and then write the lesson, subject and the date in your Social Studies Notebook". No such direction can be given to children in the Lower Division. The teacher must set them to work at occupational lessons by specific directions supplemented by demonstrations given stage by stage. It is a wise procedure to spend the first teaching time of a session, e.g. after recess or after lunch, with the lowest class, then to proceed upwards. There are many ways of directing the activities of children who have mastered the art of reading, but the others must be kept under the teacher's care. Most young teachers when appointed to one-teacher schools make the error of spending most of their teaching time with the group which gives them their quickest return - that is, the more senior pupils. The pupils who need the most attention are often the most neglected. In recent years the Department of Education has supplied all one-teacher and two-teacher schools with a set of suggestions for the use of infant school materials.

##### Three features of the daily programme

The day begins with a short social period including a hymn, a short prayer, a song suitable to the season or in keeping with a lesson theme.

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Vol. No. 12145





Then follows a group of lessons devoted to skills and drills - reading, spelling, language, arithmetic. After morning recess, provision is made for social studies, nature study, music, composition, and library reading.

The afternoon time-table provides for further work with skills and drills - for example, group practice in reading, the application of tables to the solution of problems, sentence-making with words learnt in spelling, the completion of arithmetical work begun earlier in the day. After the first three-quarters of an hour, lessons involving art and craft are given. Music, games and dramatic activities have a prominent place here. If gardening is linked with nature study, some time is spent in caring for plants and checking experiments.

When pupils are dismissed, the teacher has to enter his records, go over his plans for the next day and correct some of the written work.

### Sequence of lessons

When the sequence of lessons is being arranged on a weekly time-table most teachers provide for a variety of both subject matter and procedure. A lesson in arithmetic requiring individual work with prepared practice materials may be followed by a reading lesson involving group discussion, during which the social factors in learning find free expression. A lesson involving movement and considerable muscular activity may be followed by library reading, listening to a story or poem. Variation keeps interest alive and enables the teacher to bring his guidance to all sections of his school.

The length of lesson periods ranges from fifteen minutes to three-quarters of an hour. Short lessons are used for drills demanding concentration on difficulties to be mastered. Other types of practice aiming at the acquisition of speed may require longer periods. It is obvious that lessons in art, craft and drama, and practical work in elementary science, all of which make their appeal to children by the final accomplishment - the finished model, drawing and so on - must be given in longer periods.

In some country schools the whole Upper Division spends one afternoon each week (two-hour period) at needlework and craft. A visiting teacher or the wife of the teacher-in-charge comes once a week to take needlework (which is given to girls over eight years of age), while other pupils spend their time on some form of manual exercises and supplementary lessons.

### Enlisting the children's co-operation

Despite the variation from school to school in programmes and time-tables, there is general regard for the principle of giving children an active part in the corporate life of the school. The successful handling by children of the problems which confront them in group living provides a realistic education in citizenship and character.

Many of the situations which children deal with in school resemble the wider problems of the community, and so offer a preparation for life in the adult community. The teacher in the country school gives a place to civic training and aids personality development in the following ways:

- (a) by the class meeting, which, under an elected chairman, discusses problems affecting the school;
- (b) by posting on a notice board committees and rosters of pupils to care for the school buildings and its equipment;
- (c) by undertaking, with the help of groups of pupils, such social projects as a sports day, a school excursion;
- (d) by forming committees to promote a new club or society or to undertake some new venture of an educative kind, e. g. to acquire visual aid equipment.



We may conclude this section by noting that no set system or plan is advanced in New South Wales to direct the education of children in the country school. Much is left to the intelligence and initiative of the teacher, his knowledge of principles, and above all his respect for the pupils entrusted to his care.

### TEACHER TRAINING FOR MULTIPLE-CLASS SCHOOLS

The Education Department of New South Wales has made every endeavour to give rural children equal opportunity. Regardless of the resources of the local community, the same equipment is furnished, the same standards of suitability and excellence are insisted upon in the provision of buildings, and the same type of teacher is employed as in the larger centres. Indeed, when one considers the amount of equipment, playing space, or total expenditure, in relation to the number of children, the small school compares more than favourably with the larger school. Nevertheless, the quality of the school and its influence in the local community depend far more on the teacher than on these material supplies. So much depends upon the personality and special qualities of the teacher, and the educational consequences of an unfortunate choice may be so serious in a small school, that the provision of suitable teachers has always been a major concern of the Department of Education. The recruitment, training, appointment, transfer, promotion and payment of all teachers in State schools is in its hands. The Department is able to attract suitable candidates for training as teachers and to offer a suitable course of training. This indeed is one of the virtues of such a centralized administration.

Because the multiple-class school involves special responsibilities and requires a high degree of professional competence for guiding the educational growth of pupils of widely different abilities, it is generally agreed that teachers having some years of experience in staffed schools should be appointed to such posts. The Department of Education is not able to direct more than a limited number of these teachers to country schools. To attract such teachers to country schools a special salary allowance is given, and vested residences are often provided. On account of the housing shortage in recent years and the fact that a special allowance is made if the teacher's wife takes the sewing class, many young married teachers of more than usual ability have been attracted to these positions. Then, it is generally felt in the profession that a successful period of service in a small school must be an advantage when promotion is applied for. On the other hand, the remoteness, the lack of a residence, and of the social amenities of life in town, make it difficult to attract suitable experienced teachers to some schools - especially women assistants for the multiple-classes of the lower divisions of two- and three-teacher schools in the smaller country villages. Then the ladder of promotion leads out of small schools, so that the best of the male teachers appointed to such schools eventually move out to headmasterships of two- or three-teacher schools or deputy headmasterships of larger schools.

In these circumstances another source of supply of teachers must be used. As a condition of selection for free training and a scholarship or grant-in-aid to a Teachers College, with the certainty of appointment upon the successful completion of the two years of training, a student entering signs a bond by which he agrees to serve for three years in any position in the State to which he is appointed. The number of ex-students of colleges immediately appointed to one-teacher schools is not large, for the reasons we have discussed. Teachers are encouraged to remain in their appointments to country schools. An appointment is usually from three to five years, and it is difficult, once such an appointment has been accepted, to obtain a position elsewhere before this period has expired. This ensures continuity in the education of rural children, and fosters those fruitful relationships which may develop over a period between the teacher and the community. Also, it tends to stabilize teachers and thus further limits the number of appointments to small schools required each year.

Classroom experience is but one criterion, and not always an important one, in judging the professional competence of a teacher. This places a heavy responsibility on the six State Teachers' Colleges - which they fully accept - to select and train a small group of students who may be recommended for immediate appointment to one-teacher schools. A tradition of freedom and autonomy, together with positive encouragement from the Education Department to



experiment with curricula and methods, has led to some divergency of practice in the different teacher-training colleges. On the other hand, a periodic conference of principals and occasional conferences of lecturers help in the interchange of ideas and in the evaluation of practices. In the training of teachers for one-teacher and multiple-class schools, practices are similar in general, although there may be variations in details.

A teacher-in-training must learn a great many skills; he must learn how and when to use them, and must understand their relevance to the process of education. Since an entering student is usually a late adolescent, he must be assisted to reach manhood with a high ideal of service and a deep sense of responsibility, broad tolerance and balanced judgment. Finally, he must be encouraged to explore some of the humanities and to make his own, as well as acquire a taste for, some of their disciplines. In achieving these ends, as with the majority of students who are preparing for primary work, most of the means and methods of a teachers' college will be the same. Since students mature at varying rates and attain to professional competence in varying degrees, and further, since some time is needed to assess these qualities, there is no selection or specialization until the beginning of the second year of training, in a two-year period.

Usually one section, a small group of twenty to thirty men and women, is selected from the whole student body to work and study together with a conscious awareness of their possible future appointments. They are those who have given evidence of the requisite character and competence, and who have been encouraged to volunteer for this work. During their second year they share in the experiences and the corporate life of the College, and study much the same content as other students. The formal types of educational procedure by which children acquire certain skills are independent of local conditions, and there can be no reason for specialized methods in teaching the individual child, whether rural or urban, to read, write, calculate, to act honourably and speak correctly. The differences in classroom procedure which do exist are due to other conditions than those of curricula requirements. However, the experiential content of the curricula does require special consideration. The experiences on which a child builds must be his own and those facets of his education which should be rooted in these experiences will differ in consequence in rural areas.

While all the training college lecturers must present the content of their specialities to the Small School Section, so that the material, methods and procedures may be seen in relation to the rural setting, a very special responsibility rests with lecturers in education. They must go into the factors forming community life in rural districts and lead the students to a sympathetic insight into its problems. In the course of study relating to professional ethics they must consider with their students the obligations of the sole-charge teacher and the difficulties which may arise. In addition, they must consider how many disparate elements may, by programme construction, be woven into a continuing and intelligible pattern suited to the needs of growing children. The work of other lecturers is related to these discussions so that a student may see that the whole school is in his care. Finally, the student has to examine matters of school organization which in larger schools are the headmaster's responsibility - registers and returns, requisitions and inventories, reports and accounts, dealings with the local Parents' and Citizens' Association or the Central Administrative Authority. For other young teachers these problems are not so urgent, since in staff schools senior staff will be present to accept responsibility.

The section adviser, who is appointed by the principal from the staff, supplements the work of the education lecturer. Usually he is a lecturer with experience and considerable interest in small school work, but not necessarily a lecturer in education. He assists the students in their professional and personal problems and acts as their immediate supervisor in the college. In collaboration with the education lecturer concerned and the "small schools" teacher in the College Demonstration School, he plans the programmes of practical classroom demonstrations which supplement the lectures. He attends the demonstrations with the students and afterwards discusses with them the lessons seen. Demonstration lessons generally take an hour to an hour and a half of college time each week during the academic term. Special demonstrations may also be arranged in the demonstration Infants' Schools, in order that students may learn from the simpler classroom setting here how to go about the education of the younger children - the most difficult group in the small school.

During the six weeks (approximately) which the second-year students spend in the practice schools, usually in two periods of three weeks, much of the supervision devolves on the section



adviser, although owing to the distances involved with small schools he often requires assistance from other supervisors. Lesson notes are discussed, students are helped to improve and evaluate their teaching methods, to observe and record the detail of a small school's organization and its relations with the community. Finally, his assessment of the teacher's competence is a major factor in determining the final recommendation of the Central Administration as to suitability for immediate appointment to a small school.

Once appointed in sole charge, a teacher still receives training. Perhaps the most important stimulus and advice come from the local district inspector, who is chosen for his education and enlightenment, his capacity to keep abreast of current educational thought and his success as a teacher. The inspector assesses the competence of teachers for the Central Administration, but his more important function could be termed the "cross-fertilization" of schools. Traditionally in our rural areas inspectors are regarded as leaders of an enthusiastic team of workers in a field where there is abundant room for initiative. During a visit, the inspector may help to solve problems of organization, suggest and demonstrate fresh teaching procedures, assist in the planning and programming of studies and advise on the strengthening of the school's relationships with the local community. Often too, a district inspector will organize a "field day", on which teachers from several small schools will meet at one school to discuss, demonstrate and exchange ideas on the many facets of their work. Supervisors in specialist subjects, such as music, seek the inspector's advice in planning and organizing their visits in his district.

During vacations (usually the long six weeks' summer vacation), methods and lectures of professional interest are arranged by the Teachers' Colleges. Such schools are attended voluntarily by teachers wanting to improve their professional competence. As they must sacrifice their leisure to attend, the continual success of these vacation, post-college courses is proof of the high morale and professional zeal of our rural teachers.

### ENRICHING THE INSTRUCTIONAL AND SOCIAL PROGRAMME

#### Teachers' conferences

The instructional and social programme of the one-teacher school may be enriched in a number of ways. Local administrators, such as area directors or the district inspectors and supervisors of special subjects, may organize refresher courses or demonstrations for teachers. Such forms of in-service training are given at selected centres in school time. Teachers invited to attend are permitted to close their schools for the time of the conference - usually one day. Teachers from small schools discuss their problems and watch demonstrations. One of the best features of conferences of this type is that they use the talent of local schools and so disseminate the ideas of the most progressive teachers in the district.

Groups of teachers through their own professional organizations have arranged conferences to review educational developments, service conditions and school problems. The publication in professional journals of reports of such gatherings has brought the proceedings to many more teachers.

#### Audio-visual aids

Audio-visual aids, filmstrips, film and radio broadcasts, are extensively used in small schools today. Most schools have a strip film projector and a radio, and 16 mm. film projectors are quite common. If electricity is lacking, excellent battery-operated machines may be used. The machines are usually purchased by local Parents' and Citizens' Associations, with the help of a twenty per cent subsidy from the Education Department, which also provides a maintenance and repair service without charge.

The Department of Education maintains the school's library of filmstrips, runs a central library of films for 16 mm. projectors and assists in the preparation and broadcasting of more than twenty separate broadcast series each week for schools.



Unfortunately few filmstrips, films or broadcasts are suitable for more than one division. This poses some problems of management in a small school. The development of a hooded daylight screen for projectors has removed any difficulty in the use of a filmstrip projector. The room need not be darkened; all that is necessary is to eliminate glare. 16 mm. sound films, however, like radio broadcasts, are distracting to other children. One solution is to remove the small group concerned to an annex of the school, such as a cloakroom or verandah. Although children cannot usually be trained to operate 16 mm. projectors, they can learn to switch the projector off when necessary - which frees the teacher for some supervision of other classes while the film is being shown. Naturally good discipline is essential, and the teacher must see the film beforehand so that he may plan his class preparation and discussion. For broadcasts, one good solution is to fit an extension speaker on a long lead to the existing equipment. In this way a single division may group themselves around the speaker in a corner or immediate annex (the volume being turned down) or the speaker may be taken to the verandah. Such use does not imply that a broadcast lesson is a "silent work" lesson freeing the teacher for an oral lesson with the remainder.

#### Group and individual teaching

Much thought and research in recent years have been devoted to the social aspects of learning. Group discussions and investigations are now emphasized in the teaching of subjects like social studies, literature, music and art. Learning by individual methods in these subjects does not achieve modern educational aims as fully as is possible; it has been shown that the powers of communication and appreciation are developed most readily in a particular social climate. This climate is found most typically in a group of approximately the same mental maturity. The group need not be large. With children however, it must contain several individuals who can act, recite, criticize and appreciate, in the fullest sense, the same experience. This sharing of ideas stimulates and inspires the individuals of the group.

The wide range of ages and interests, abilities, skills and experiences, combined with the relatively small number enrolled, makes the task of the small-school teacher more difficult than that of his colleague with a relatively more homogeneous group in the staffed-school classroom. To obtain comparatively equal social groups, the small school is divided into divisions, often three, and much of the work is planned in parallel courses rather than in a final sequence. One must not assume that the curriculum in the subjects mentioned must be arranged into detailed sequences of study content. Sequence is only relevant to the final organization of the topics investigated; the main themes may usually be taken in the order which is most convenient.\* Thus, in many small schools, much of the curriculum content is planned as a three-cycle rotation of integrated content for three divisions and much the same situation is evident when the number of divisions are varied.

The need for group teaching in many areas of the primary school curriculum must not obscure the necessity for individual instruction in the basic and fundamental skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, especially with the younger children. A class teacher in a staffed school may overlook the wide range of ability in his class and attempt to teach them all together, ignoring those of variant ability, especially the brighter group. Good teachers group children, even in relatively homogeneous classes, and allow for individual differences. The heterogeneity of the small school reminds its teacher that children grow, mature and acquire their basic skills at differing rates. The smaller number of children at any level makes it easier for the teacher to individualize his instruction. Compared with that of the usual class teacher, the problem is not one of kind but of degree, and it is not surprising that the individualization of much of this material is usually more marked in a small school. In this respect, a small-school teacher has the advantage over his staffed-school colleague.

Since he can, of necessity, only attend to a few children at a time, a small-school teacher must discover or construct the various means by which individual work can be accomplished without his immediate presence and with but occasional direct supervision. In effect, he multiplies himself, and we now turn our attention and devices by which he accomplishes this. The discussion will be general: programmes are available in books on specific teaching procedures.

\* An account of experimental curriculum planning in socially backward areas can be read in Learn and Live by C. M. Olsen and N. D. Fletcher. For detailed themes and units of work or possible projects on more orthodox lines the reader is referred to Living and Learning in a Rural School by Genevieve Bowen.



## TEACHING AIDS

Our first consideration will be the provision of aids for the lower division - a group which can be, and often is, the most difficult to provide for in the working of a small school. The inspiration for many of the instructional aids and teaching procedures here can be traced back directly to the great Italian educationist, Maria Montessori. Various forms of her didactic materials feature in the individual work of the small schools of New South Wales, whereas in other types of schools, professional ingenuity has adapted, modified and reorganized the apparatus she developed.

In the collection, construction and organization of educative materials a teacher must be aware that there is little to be gained by a multiplicity of apparatus to illustrate the same principle. A child is not educated by handling much material but by the thought such material provokes. There is little purpose, for example, in asking a child to perform a word-matching exercise when he can already read and understand the words involved. He should be led to suitable books through which he may improve his power to gain information from the printed page or to study the words used. Again, if a child understands how to build a table in number by using beads or counters, it is not necessary for him to go through the building process with other material. He builds to discover the number facts and to understand the process. Apparatus is a means to an end.

It is essential for success that the individual work be well graded in difficulty. A child must continually progress, and in addition realize fully the fact of his own progress. With suitably graded materials it is possible for a child to pass from stage to stage at his own rate. The grading then should not only be clear to the teacher, but evident to the children. With young children this is often accomplished by means of some form of colour marking. Perhaps the first-stage material is marked in blue, the second in green, and so on. This grouping of material of about the same difficulty has much to commend it. Some freedom of choice is both useful and desirable. A child should, in general, feel he is free to make his own choice, although, if neglect of certain material is noticed, he may be helped in his choice by the advice and skilful suggestion of the teacher. "Are you ready for this?" is of course much to be preferred to "Don't be lazy, do these exercises". In the well organized small school the atmosphere and the continual suggestions absorbed from the attitudes of the older children to their work has its influence on the younger ones. Rewarding the successful completion of a task is harder.

Children's memories have a brief span, so not only must materials be carefully graded, but each child's work must be recorded so that both teacher and child may be able to follow the progress made. With young children, the best records are those which the child marks off himself, and the younger the child the more apparent should be the record. A colour ladder, on which a cross is placed as the relevant colour-matched material is completed, is sometimes used. With older children a ruled chart with the names in a column on the left-hand side and the sequence of material across the top from left to right may be used. As each section is completed, it is coloured in appropriately in the column opposite the child's name, the dates of commencement and completion being entered by teacher or child. At a glance, a teacher can locate on such a record those who may need his help or who are at the same level and may be given introductory explanation or assistance with new material. Other graphic records may also be used, but their principles and purposes are the same.

In the initial stages of planning and constructing these materials in a small school, a teacher may experiment with the cheapest materials available. When the final form is settled upon, it saves time and money to make this apparatus in as permanent a form as possible. Reading boards, rhyme cards, number cards and other apparatus made in wood last for years. The most suitable material for this purpose is good quality three-ply, and for heavier work five-ply sheets, since other very thin boards will split if bent or much handled. When wood is used, the pieces should be well sandpapered, sized and left to dry. After sizing, such boards can be coloured or written upon with different inks and colours. Finally, when dry, the whole is varnished with a hard clear varnish. Cardboard of suitable thickness is often quite satisfactory, but must be sized and treated as is wood, and the edges and corners suitably bound to withstand wear. Illustrations cut from magazines or periodicals and glued to these aids need to be sized before varnishing, since varnish often renders them transparent. An attractive appearance adds considerably to the value of such materials for teaching purposes. Much of this material



is available from educational suppliers, but the cost and ease of construction of different aids are important considerations.

A good teaching device for individual work provides for self-correction and, perhaps self-testing. A teacher's time is limited in the small school, and the burden of correction with three divisions to teach is always heavy. Apart from this, there is implicit educational value in materials from which a child can learn his errors and correct them. A little thought can often add to the value of a device by making it self-correcting. If answer cards are to be placed in certain positions on a card then some form of colour marking or symbolic marking, usually geometrical, can be placed on the back of the small answer cards and in the spaces provided on the main material. Flash cards which a child can use with a companion or group may have the answer on the back.

In individual work, testing is necessary by the pupil or by the teacher. Some advantage is gained if the material is both self-correcting and self-testing, but the two are not always possible with the same materials or apparatus. A testing programme is therefore required and desirable. Specific attitudes need to be developed in this work. A test is not undertaken to discover what the child has not done (the records should show that), but to reveal to the child whether his mastery is as secure as he thinks it is. Children should be encouraged to take the same attitude to scholastic tests as they do to other tests of skill, such as high jumping or skipping. A valuable service has been rendered to small schools, as well as to other educational institutions, by the standardized tests of the basic skills made by the Australian Council of Educational Research. On account of their availability and low cost, they are widely used in New South Wales. The age and grade norms which accompany these tests enable small-school teachers to evaluate pupils' progress and also the effectiveness of the methods and materials employed.

Finally, questions of handling and storing teaching aids need to be considered. Varnished board and cards should not be stacked in boxes on top of each other. Wall pockets of suitable material or racks are generally used. Coloured calico, or similar material, small wooden compartments, neatly papered or enamelled in bright colours, and hanging racks with pegs on which the apparatus may be hung, have all been found satisfactory. Should cloth be used, it is advisable to work any identifying symbols or colours into the material since this will need occasional washing. If several pieces are part of the one apparatus, they are usually eyeletted and tied to the main body with cord, or a suitable container is glued to the main body to contain the small pieces. The same identifying mark should then appear on each piece. This is of considerable assistance in sorting after use.

There is not, in general, much disagreement concerning the developmental sequence and methods to be used in teaching arithmetic to young children.

In reading, one can distinguish three methods in use: the phonic method, the word whole - commonly termed the "look and say" method - and the sentence method. Although each of these methods has its protagonists, teachers generally use some combination of the three in practice. In small schools the extent and use of the phonic method is possibly more emphasized than elsewhere. This method is probably more suitable for individual work than the "look and say" method, because the child who has learnt the sounds of the letters can build unfamiliar printed words by himself and comprehend them when spoken. The child who must be told each new word is dependent upon his teacher.

With older children the use of textbooks, work books and study or assignment sheets, is of importance in subjects which require, or can be mastered by individual work. There are, of course, always the dangers that too much reliance may be placed by a teacher on these ready-made aids and that a slavish following of them may stifle classroom initiative or that they may be used in situations where group or social investigations are required. Granting these dangers, such aids are useful and necessary, although textbooks need to be supplemented by the library. The question of cost has been of importance in the development and use of these materials in New South Wales. Textbooks in recent years have improved considerably in presentation and grading of work. But because the cost has to remain reasonable, there have been few productions which can rival the best of those now available overseas. Work books for colouring, tracing, drawing and working are not so readily obtainable, although some good productions have appeared in recent years. The lack of a wide variety of such materials from which to choose is



unfortunate, as it limits the teacher and increases the likelihood of slavish adherence to the one book. Relatively cheap colour duplicators are now available in many of the small schools and much of this type of material is now prepared by the teacher.

Reference has been made to the use of monitors in small schools in Victoria, and to the dislike of them in the schools of New South Wales. Nevertheless, it is quite common for a child to act as a leader or tester or to conduct simple drill, in much the same way as the children are organized to help with the housekeeping duties, or as older children help to supervise the playground in their rôles of class captains or prefects. Where a class leader assists in teaching, it means that only the simplest of procedures may be used: spelling drills and table-testing by flash cards are examples. Then there are variants of that delightful game, "I spy...". With a group of words on the blackboard, the leader says "I spy something beginning with 'b'", and the other children guess in turn which word it is. A similar game is "Is this...". The class leader, running his pointer under a word, asks "Is this commanded?", "No" replies the class, "that is giraffe, g-i-r-a-f-f-e!", and the game continues until the correct word is given. Whereupon the class leader is replaced by another in the group. The children's enthusiasm for such work never wanes, and these and other simple procedures are well within the capacity of the youngest children.

### LIBRARIES

Most schools form small reading libraries of their own. Teachers' Colleges give all students lectures in the management of libraries and in children's literature. But not all teachers build up libraries in their schools. Much remains to be done in providing suitable books and suitable equipment for housing them. There are, however, signs of a better interest in this question. The journals of Parents' and Citizens' Associations have taken up the discussion stimulated by educationists on the books children prefer, and town councils may now use local taxes for libraries. In small schools the libraries mainly arise from the activities of Parents' Associations which set up a library fund and thereby qualify for a subsidy from the Department.

Another service is provided by central libraries in large schools or by the Public Library, which, on certain conditions, will forward cases of books to small schools.

### SCHOOL MEDICAL SERVICE

A well organized and highly efficient service is provided to the schools of the Department of Education by a special department of the Public Health Service. The medical branch covers examination of children, inspection of the sanitary services of the school, and the examination of special categories of children, e.g. to determine their suitability for admission to the school for the blind or to a school for backward children.

It is also the advisory authority for the control of infectious diseases among schoolchildren. Information and advice concerning the control of such diseases are supplied to teachers in the form of leaflets and specific directions. Four child guidance clinics have been established under the administration of the School Medical Service. In small country towns what are called Bush Nursing Centres have been established. There has been an arrangement for many years whereby Bush Nurses act in the capacity of School Nurses at or near the Bush Nursing Centre. Bush Nurses carry out a limited inspection for the detection of physical defects or unhygienic conditions. The valuable work done by the School Medical Service in its inspection of children and its surveys of health conditions in schools is supplemented by broadcast lessons by medical officers, who deal with topics of interest to children.

### RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

The principle that moral teaching should permeate the schools and be embodied in the discipline, the treatment of children by teachers, and the manners of both teachers and children, is honoured by those who administer, and by those who serve in schools under the Department of Education. In addition to the indirect influences which contribute to moral growth, children receive lessons based on an authorized set of scripture readers and by lessons given by visiting ministers of religion to members of their own religious groups. These visits to rural schools are important for a number of reasons. Apart from the specialized instruction they give, the



ministers help to widen the children's outlook by including subjects of particular interest to dwellers in small communities, and strengthen the feeling that in ideals and attitudes there is much in common between small communities all over the world.

#### JUNIOR FARMERS' CLUBS

Junior Farmers' Clubs of both boys and girls are organized through the schools in farming areas to deepen knowledge of some aspects of farm life - wheat-growing, dairy-farming, sheep-farming, poultry-farming, pig raising. School agriculture within the State is supervised by a highly qualified officer, who may possess a degree in agriculture and/or a diploma of an agricultural college. To assist him he has a number of field officers whose time is spent in visiting schools in farming areas, stimulating interest in projects and competitions, and advising pupils. The field officers are either graduates in agriculture or hold a diploma of an agricultural college. Meetings of members of the Club may be held at the school, where literature - books, circulars, proceedings of conferences on farming, leaflets of information from Departments of Agriculture - are made available to members. The field supervisor may give a short talk, or advise about district activities, or report on visits to farms where animals and gardens under the care of members have been inspected. Young people take a lively interest in experimental plots and animals under their care. The field officers provide an important link between the schools and services of State departments concerned with farming. Through the boys and girls of Junior Farmers' Clubs scientific information about plants, animals and the organization of farm units finds its way to the adult members of the community. Thus modern farming practices are introduced to the older members of the farming district and through the young people a scientifically trained person is brought to the farm. Boys and girls are encouraged to read journals about farming and to care for animals and plants on modern scientific lines. The usual aids are used to increase adolescents' interest in club activities, e.g., photographs of the winners of competitions, point scores of competitors, announcements of club activities. Occasionally very good experiments may be carried out in the school grounds, where seeds may be tested under varying conditions. To cultivate an appreciation of life on the land by showing how control over farming processes may be improved, and to raise the status of the farming community by an informed intelligent public opinion, are the basic objectives of the Junior Farmers' movement.



NOTE: All writing for the lower division was in script, including the "weekly thought" placed at the top of the middle division area, which is written up on Monday mornings. Otherwise all writing on the upper and middle division areas was cursive. The nature of the diagrams is only indicated. Some different coloured chalks were used to show more clearly the separate sections and some chalk sketches added.



### THE SMALL SCHOOL IN SESSION - A FIRST-HAND REPORT

Let us imagine a visit to the multiple-course school, or as it is usually termed in New South Wales, the "Small School". This is a Demonstration Small School attached to the Balmain Teachers' College. In it students of this College may see the many and varied means by which such a school may realize those ideals in our culture which we endeavour to transmit in formal education.

We arrive at half-past eight to find the teacher busy at his blackboards. Children enter, place bags and books under desks, sometimes place a cutting or picture from a newspaper on a display board, then busy themselves, without direction, preparing the room for the day's work. Windows are opened, desks dusted, flowers arranged, pencils sharpened, and books and materials taken from cupboards and given out. Each has a duty to perform before departing for the playground. One older child is evidently in charge and gives advice or help if necessary. This is the "class captain" for the month, elected democratically by the children at a special meeting of the Class Club held for this purpose. On the notice board is a list of children's names and their duties in her own handwriting, prepared in consultation with the teacher. We notice that the name of one of the younger pupils is linked with an older one so that all may have their share of housekeeping responsibilities and learn these under supervision. Our Class Captain has spent some years in the school and holds unquestioned authority with the class. While the teacher is otherwise engaged she may and does take charge of the class. Her rulings and discipline are accepted by these children, rarely need she refer to the teacher or he step in quietly to correct her judgment.

The blackboard, ruled into divisions for each grade, is now completed. Sample material for the first part of a morning period may be seen in the accompanying diagram.

A bell sounds and those still in the room hurry out to visit the toilets and wash hands. Five minutes later the teacher rings a bell and waits. The children assemble and are brought into the room marching two by two under the supervision of the Class Captain. They assemble by their desks, grouped in grades, from youngest to oldest. In this class there are four in First grade, three in Second, six in Third, two in Fifth and three in Sixth grade.

A brief exchange of greetings, the Lord's Prayer recited by all in firm, clear, reverent voices and then the morning hymn. If it is a Monday, the weekly Ceremony of Allegiance to the Crown now takes place; on other days the teacher moves around the room for a "tidiness" inspection. Several pupils are sent to the front of the class with a word of praise, one or two receive a quiet reproof - a class vote, and "Mr. and Miss Small School" are selected for this day. One or two of the little ones have a stamped star on paper pinned to tunic or coat. "Who has news?" brings several of the older children out to discuss a newspaper cutting, or tell about some picture which they had previously pinned to the bulletin board. In a lively discussion others point to places on the world map, or ask questions on the news. Toy telephones appear and the younger children "telephone" each other, first dialling "S.S." for Small School and then announcing who is to answer. Their news is personal, one has visited a sick friend, another has had an evening drive with his father, a third says that his grandmother is very ill. Correct address, good phrasing and full sentences are quietly insisted upon. On a Friday the weather records for the week replace this discussion.

Mirrors are brought out and an exercise for "busy tongues" is given. Formal exercises for difficult sounds are continued and the period concludes with a nursery rhyme for the younger children and recitation of a poem, suited to unison work. To an intent audience the teacher now reads expressively an episode from a selected book. This serial story will be continued until the book is concluded; the present book is evidently chosen to appeal to the older children, and the next one will be chosen for the younger pupils. At an interesting climax the reading concludes. A two-part song is now rendered in good harmony by the "choir" which includes all but the First grade and three of the older children. A second song is now sung by all, the younger children singing softly and making appropriate gestures. The choir return to their seats and formal work begins on various assignments.



Fifth and Sixth grade commence word building, Third and Fourth write the date in their writing books, Second is sent outside to practice arithmetic tables, while First is taken by the teacher. From a set of dominoes one is held up and its story read,  $2 + 3 = 5$ . Reversed, it is read  $3 + 2 = 5$ . After leaving the pupils to continue the teacher moves to the middle division to introduce the writing lesson, drill the letter forms, and set this group to work. Now the upper division answers a question on the words "bought" and "brought" and one or two read their first word building task. In the meantime the Second class have been testing each other on their tables. A quick check by the teacher and they are brought in to do the additions set on the blackboard. First is again taken, a few dominoes repeated, a word of praise and a set of jig-saw cards given to them to practise simple addition combinations. The teacher comments on the writing and corrects half the work of the upper division. A quick check on the First, who are now set to write their card combinations in exercise books. The Second are corrected and continue their arithmetic.

Fifth and Sixth have their work corrected and write out any errors before beginning arithmetic. The writing of the Fourth is inspected and some are awarded a stamp for improvement and told to read the story "The Helpful Cook" in the May Magazine. In their work books they write the headings - New Words, Good Words and Best Sentences. On completing this, they are to draw an illustration of the story. Among the First, work is checked, a star awarded and they are given a set of cards to read, "b for ball" etc. One child is selected to stand in front and hold up the cards as for dominoes. Third are sent out to the blackboard to play a reading game after the teacher has asked a few questions on the words. "Is this commanded?" the selected monitor asks, running a ruler under giraffe. "No", reply the grade, "that is giraffe!". After several words "commanded" is found and another child is given the ruler. The work of Second is corrected, errors written out, and the children are told to read a story in the "Happy Venture" Reader. It is ten minutes since the change of lessons, so while all are occupied the teacher takes Fifth and Sixth at the blackboard and teaches them the method of handling decimals in addition. It is to be noticed that as a child finishes writing out his errors he goes to the back of the room and places the error sheet in his "error box". These boxes, labelled, are arranged in grade groups. No child need ever be idle, for if work is finished the error box is taken and studied. The teacher too can readily check these boxes to determine work that needs revision when preparing his lessons, or to hear a child individually on his errors.

Fifth and Sixth now return to their written arithmetic working from a textbook; Third, a somewhat backward group, are sent to read "The Magic Ark" (in the book The Open Road to Reading) and to work in the "Read and Do" books prepared for this text by Victoria Olive. First and Second are taken together for a few minutes at the blackboard on "sat, cat, hat" and left to play the same game as Third have played, while Fourth read aloud. As the period draws to a close the teacher interrupts the oral reading to send First and Second grades to their seats to write the words in their exercise books. Fifth and Sixth correct their answers by slips taken from the teacher's desk and collect their books to place on his desk for final correction. The school is taken together for a song and the next period starts. The upper division is now taken for reading, and the middle division for arithmetic, and the lower division for spelling.

After this comes playtime. Out in the playground all the children, big and little, play a game "Sheep Sheep Come Home!" while the teacher has a cup of tea and perhaps reviews some of the material placed on his desk or prepares a blackboard. If this school was in a typical country setting he might walk across to the residence for a cup of tea with his wife. After playtime there is another period of number work for the lower division with notation and tables for drill for the upper division. Then while the upper division has social studies until lunch time and after some instruction proceeds with a project on the "Flying Doctor Services", there is writing and spelling for the lower and middle divisions respectively. This is followed by a period of social studies, the lower division working on "My Food" from the activity text "Out of My Window" the middle division studying the Australian explorations of Hume and Hovell.



### FUTURE POSSIBILITIES

The one-teacher school, with its distinctive procedure designated "Multiple-class Teaching", grew to meet the needs of frontier education in a pioneering country. What does the future hold for schools of this type? As villages grow and school attendances increase, more rooms will be added to the original units and larger, more complex schools will develop. This has been, and will continue to be, the line of development as districts become permanently settled and established.

Another advance is afforded by consolidation. This involves closing the Small Schools and transporting pupils to a larger school which serves a given area. Many people would agree that modern education can best be given, not in a Small School to twelve or more pupils, but in a larger school with special rooms, equipment, playing fields and, perhaps, special subject teachers on the staff. The State of Tasmania is following this plan with considerable success. The working of any scheme of centralization or consolidation depends on certain transport factors - vehicles, all-weather roads and the distances children have to travel - and even when everything possible is done in this direction, there will still remain in the larger and less settled States a great many one-teacher schools. There is no reason to regard them with dismay. The contribution they make to the education of country children stands up to a critical survey. They ensure effective individual learning, and develop qualities of independence, responsibility and initiative. As long as the practice continues of sending young teachers to these schools, after some service in a staffed school, there will be little danger of country children being handicapped in learning social skills and attitudes. The social education of the child "out back" is being perfected in another way: by the practice of organizing camps for country children under the National Fitness Movement.

The recognition of the claims of the country school child when books and other equipment become available from a centralized department enables the one-teacher school to share in progressive developments of libraries and in reforms in the teaching of art and craft. Probably the greatest improvements in the Small Schools of this or any other State will come through reforms in the preparation of student teachers. Teachers' Colleges in New South Wales prepare a number of students specifically for this important work. But such preparation is undertaken after one year has been spent in a course of general education and professional studies. It has been felt for a long time that preparation for taking charge of a country school requires a longer time of pre-service training. The course should include a more detailed study of early work in reading, number and writing. It should include some study of the rural school in its community and be enriched by at least one period of teaching practice in schools within such an area. It should give students a fuller knowledge of the assistance available to them through the Department of Education and allied services for the enrichment of the teaching of the country child. It should develop the skills and knowledge needed for living in a country area. At various points in the present document the advantages of a centralized system of educational control have appeared. However, some modification of the existing plan of centralization is bound to come, and already the system of Area Directorships is working in a number of districts. If this movement results in deepening local interest in schools, it should enrich country education.

One concluding remark: it is impossible to translate the features of a social institution, such as the school, from one country to another in which the climate of social and political opinion may be unfavourable to their adoption. But when due regard is paid to the conditions under which our Small Schools have grown up, there may well be some principles of organization and teaching procedure which teachers in other lands will find worthy of trial.



# APPENDIX A

## Time-Table Small School, One-Teacher, N.S.W.

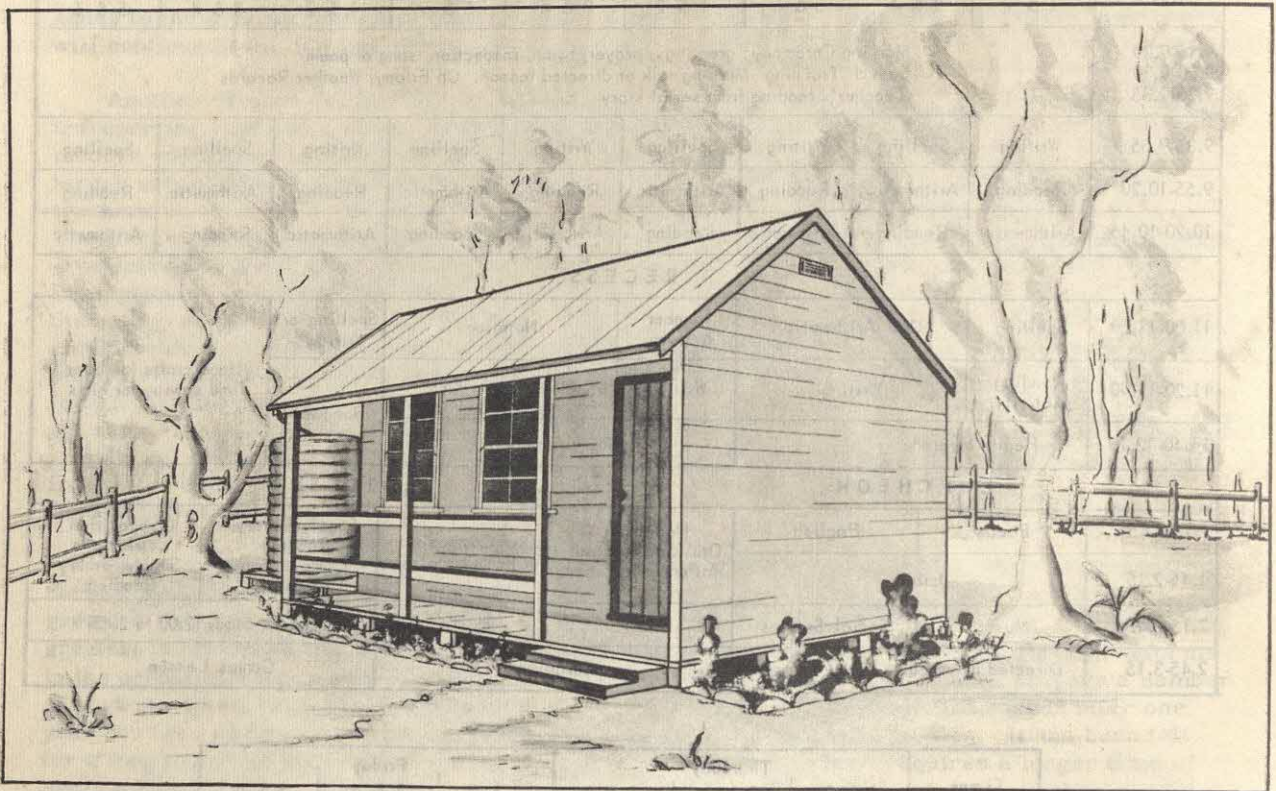
| Times                               | Monday  |                 |            | Tuesday  |            |   | Wednesday   |  |            |
|-------------------------------------|---|-----------------|------------|--|------------|---|---|--|------------|
|                                     | 1 & 2   | 3 & 4           | 5 & 6      | 1 & 2  | 3 & 4      | 5 & 6                                   | 1 & 2   | 3 & 4  | 5 & 6      |
| 9.15-9.20<br>9.20-9.30<br>9.30-9.35 | Morning Ceremony : greetings, prayer, hymn, inspection, song or poem<br>Speech Training: Morning talk or directed lesson. On Friday, Weather Records<br>Teacher's reading from serial story |                 |            |  |            |   |   |  |            |
| 9.35-9.55                           | Writing   | Spelling        | Writing    | Spelling   | Writing    | Spelling                                | Writing   | Spelling   | Spelling   |
| 9.55-10.20                          | Reading   | Arithmetic      | Reading    | Arithmetic   | Reading    | Arithmetic                              | Reading   | Arithmetic                                       | Reading    |
| 10.20-10.45                         | Arithmetic  | Reading         | Arithmetic | Reading  | Arithmetic | Reading                                 | Arithmetic  | Reading  | Arithmetic |
| RECESS                              |   |                 |            |  |            |   |   |  |            |
| 11.00-11.20                         | Spelling  | Oral Arithmetic |            | Number Activity                                      | Notation   |   | Spelling or Writing                                 | Handicrafts for boys and sewing for girls        |            |
| 11.20-11.40                         | Reading Activity  | Writing         |            | Writing  | Spelling   | Social Studies                          | Handwork  |  |            |
| 11.40-12.15                         | Health Hygiene  |                 |            | Social Studies                                       |            |   |   |  |            |
| LUNCHEON                            |   |                 |            |  |            |   |   |  |            |
| RECESS                              |   |                 |            |  |            |   |   |  |            |
| 1.15-1.45                           | Poetry  | English         |            | Modelling<br>Oral Composition<br>Written Composition |            | Oral Composition<br>Written Composition | Supplementary Reading<br>Composition<br>Corrections | Composition Corrections<br>Supplementary Reading |            |
| 1.45-2.15                           | Library   |                 |            |  |            |   |   |  |            |
| 2.15-2.45                           | Music   | Social Studies  |            | Art  | Music      |   | Nature Study (2.00 to 2.45)                         |  |            |
| 2.45-3.15                           | Directed Physical Activity Lesson   |                 |            | Scripture  |            |   | Games Lesson  |  |            |

| Times                               | Thursday   |                 |                             | Friday                                      |            |              |
|-------------------------------------|--|-----------------|-----------------------------|---|------------|--------------|
|                                     | 1 & 2  | 3 & 4           | 5 & 6                       | 1 & 2                                       | 3 & 4      | 5 & 6        |
| 9.15-9.20<br>9.20-9.30<br>9.30-9.35 | Morning Ceremony: as for Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday<br>Speech Training: As set out under Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday<br>Teacher's reading from serial story |                 |                             |   |            |              |
| 9.35-9.55                           | Spelling   | Writing         | Spelling                    | Writing                                     | Writing    | Dictation    |
| 9.55-10.20                          | Arithmetic   | Reading         | Arithmetic                  | Reading                                     | Arithmetic | Reading      |
| 10.20-10.45                         | Reading  | Arithmetic      | Reading                     | Arithmetic                                  | Reading    | Arithmetic   |
| RECESS                              |  |                 |                             |   |            |              |
| 11.00-11.20                         | Reading<br>Activity<br>Writing   | Oral Arithmetic |                             | Dictation<br>Corrections<br>Oral Arithmetic |            |              |
|                                     |  | Spelling        | Mensuration<br>& Geometry   |   |            |              |
| 11.20-11.40                         | Mensuration or<br>Geometry   |                 | Mensuration and<br>Geometry | Activity Work                               |            | Music Theory |
| 11.40-12.15                         | Social Studies   |                 |                             |   |            |              |
| LUNCHEON                            |  |                 |                             | RECESS                                      |            |              |
| 1.15-1.45<br>1.45-2.15              | Handwork   |                 | Handicrafts<br>and Sewing   | Story<br>Singing<br>Games                   |            | Art          |
| 2.15-2.45                           | Art  |                 | Poetry                      | Dramatization                               |            |              |
| 2.45-3.15                           | Directed Physical Activity Lesson  |                 |                             | Class Club                                  |            |              |



APPENDIX B

PLAN OF RURAL SCHOOL BUILDING



SMALL SCHOOL  
NEW SOUTH WALES

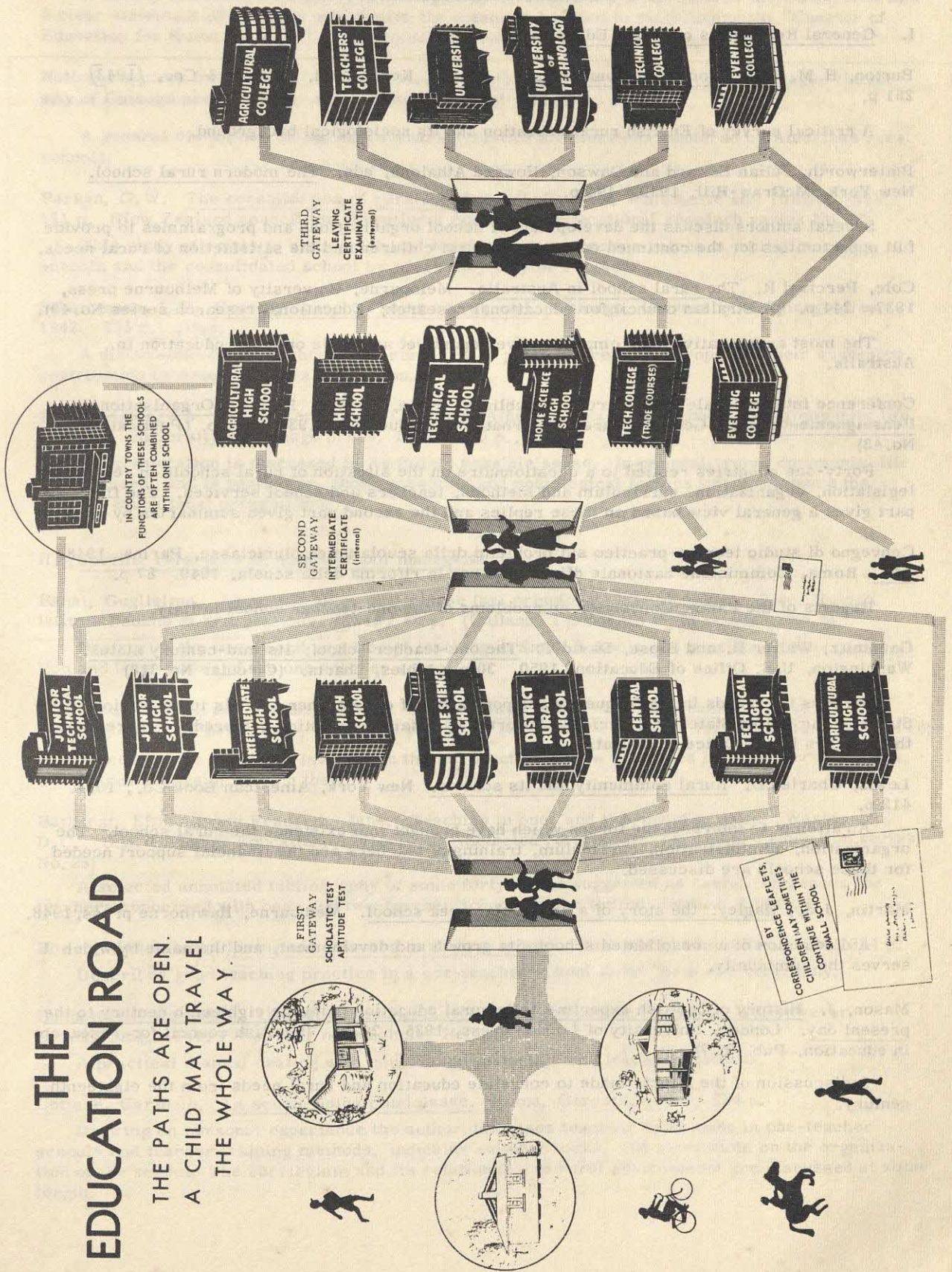
Classroom  
24'0" X 24'0"

TIMBER-FRAMED  
SINGLE CLASSROOM

Verandah  
24'0" X 8'0"



APPENDIX C





APPENDIX D

SUGGESTED FURTHER READING

I. General References on Rural Education

Burton, H. M. Education of the countryman. London, Kegan Paul, Trubner & Co., [1943]  
251 p.

A critical survey of English rural education and its sociological background.

Butterworth, Julian Edward and Dawson, Howard Athalone, eds. The modern rural school.  
New York, McGraw-Hill, 1952. 494 p.

Several authors discuss the development of school organizations and programmes to provide full opportunities for the continued education of rural children and the satisfaction of rural needs.

Cole, Percival R. The rural school in Australia. Melbourne, University of Melbourne press, 1937. 244 p. (Australian council for educational research; Educational research series No. 49).

The most authoritative and comprehensive report yet available on rural education in Australia.

Conférence internationale de l'instruction publique, 5ème, Genève, 1936. L'Organisation de l'enseignement rural. Genève, Bureau international d'éducation, 1936. 266 p. (Publication No. 48)

Forty-one countries replied to a questionnaire on the situation of rural schools in respect to legislation, organization, curriculum and methods, teachers and school services. The first part gives a general view based on these replies and the second part gives summaries by country.

Convegno di studio teorico-prattico sui problemi della scuola unica pluriclasse, Parma, 1948. Atti. Roma, Commissione nazionale d'inchiesta per la riforma della scuola, 1949. 87 p.

Reports of the Parma Convention on problems of the one-teacher school in Italy.

Gaumnitz, Walter H. and Blose, David T. The one-teacher school; its mid-century status. Washington, U.S. Office of Education, 1950. 30 p., tables, charts. (Circular No. 318)

Surveys the trends in the frequency and population of one-teacher schools in the various States of the United States of America, supported by detailed statistics gathered for more than thirty years by the Office of Education.

Lewis, Charles D. Rural community and its schools. New York, American Book Co., 1937. 412 p.

An attempt to interpret the forces which have brought into existence the rural school. The organization, administration, curriculum, training of teachers and the financial support needed for these schools are discussed.

Martin, J.S., Hagley: the story of a Tasmanian area school. Melbourne, Hawthorne press, 1948.

A discussion of a consolidated school, its growth and development, and the name by which it serves the community.

Mason, J. History of Scottish experiments in rural education from the eighteenth century to the present day. London, University of London press, 1935. 207 p. (Scottish council for research in education, Pub. No. 7)

A discussion of the efforts made to correlate education and rural needs from the eighteenth century.



National education association of the United States. The White House conference on rural education, 1944. Washington, D.C., N.E.A., 1945. 272 p. illus.

A survey of rural education in the United States of America at the time of the Conference and a clear statement of the aims and in part the means to be used in establishing the "Charter of Education for Rural Children" drawn up by the Conference.

National society for the study of education. Education in rural communities. Chicago, University of Chicago press, 1952. 359 p. (its fifty-first yearbook, part II).

A general discussion on the major characteristics and services rendered by American rural schools.

Parkyn, G.W. The consolidation of rural schools. Wellington, Whitcombe and Tombs, 1952. 151 p. (New Zealand council for educational research. Educational research series No. 32)

This study attempts to distinguish and weigh up the respective values of multiple-course schools and the consolidated school by which they may be replaced.

Schatzmann, I.E. Country school at home and abroad. Chicago, University of Chicago press, 1942. 233 p., illus.

A discussion of rural schools and rural life in parts of pre-war Europe and their suggested contribution to American rural education.

Works, George A. and Lesser, Simon O. Rural America today; its schools and community life. Chicago, University of Chicago press, 1942. 450 p., illus.

Rural education is discussed in its fullest possible sense. In general, rural community life is discussed, and in particular, those economic and sociological factors which influence the general educational programme.

## II. Specific reference on small-school management

Banal, Guglielmo. La scuola unica pluriclasse (nei principi e nella pratica). 2 ed. Rovigo. Istituto Padano di arti grafiche, [1949/ 80 p. (Collana "i problemi della scuola", No. 6)

Deals with the theory and practice of teaching in small schools and considers the organization and time-tables of the one-teacher school.

Bathurst, Effie G. and Franseth, Jane. Modern ways in one- and two-teacher schools. Washington, Gov. print. off., 1951. 48 p., illus. (U.S. Office of Education. Bulletin 1951, No. 18)

Discusses the problems involved in the introduction of new practices in small rural schools, and suggests ways of solving them.

Bathurst, Effie G. and Franseth, Jane. Teaching in one- and two-room schools. Washington, D.C., U.S. Office of Education, 1951. 10 p. (Selected references; elementary education series, No. 25)

A selected annotated bibliography of some forty works suggested as useful references for teachers concerned with one- and two-teacher schools in the United States of America.

Bowen, Geneviève. Living and learning in a rural school. New York, Macmillan, 1946. 324 p.

Describes good teaching practice in a one-teacher school in the form of a biography.

Bühnemann, Hermann. Die Selbstbildungsmittel der neuen Schule. Lübeck, Wullenwever-Druckverlag, 1949. 116 p. (Die neue Schule, Heft 3)

A practical manual dealing with educational materials and teaching methods.

Cottone, Carmelo. La scuola unica pluriclasse. Roma, Garzanti [1948/ 234 p.

Drawing on personal experience the author discusses teaching techniques in one-teacher schools and teacher training methods, indicates suitable books, and gives hints on the organization of the school. The curriculum and its relationship to rural environment are discussed at some length.



Cressot, J. L'école à classe unique et l'école à deux classes; organisation pédagogique. Paris, Bourrellet, 1952. 345 p.

A practical teachers' handbook dealing with every aspect of teaching in one- and two-teacher schools.

Dévaud, E. Lire, parler, rédiger. Procédés d'enseignement actif applicable à des classes à plusieurs degrés. 3 ed. Fribourg, Librairie de l'Université; Namur, La Procure; Bruxelles, La Procure, 1947. 142 p.

A set of suggested methods for reading, speaking and writing applicable to one-teacher rural schools.

Dunn, Fannie Wyche. The child in the rural environment. Washington, D.C., National education association of the United States of America, Department of rural education, 1951. 253 p. (its yearbook, 1951).

The first part of this book is a study of rural education made by the author, who after several years as a teacher was later a professor of rural education at the Teachers' College, Columbia University. The second part is made up of selected papers containing suggestions on guidance of rural children, curriculum planning and organization of classes.

Elijah, J. W. The rural school: its problems and functions. Melbourne, Robertson and Mullens, 1926.

A brief discussion of multiple-course school problems in management of classes for Victoria schools. Many suggestions are made for particular solutions of these problems.

George Peabody college for teachers, Nashville. Division of surveys and field studies. Shared experiences; problems and practices in the small rural schools, by the Small Rural Schools Workshop under the direction of John E. Brewton, Nashville, Tenn., 1951. 59 p. Processed. (Problems in teacher education, Vol. 6)

Records the experiences discussed in the Small Rural Schools Workshop held at George Peabody College, 17 July - 22 August 1941. These discussions represented an effort to answer two questions: What are the characteristics of a good small rural school? and, How may a school having these characteristics be developed?

Gourvest, J., Martin, F. and Orjubin, Ch. L'école à classe unique. Guide-conseils accompagnés de nombreux tableaux et emplois du temps. Paris, Fernand Nathan, 1936. 207 p.

Advice by an experienced teacher to a young teacher at the beginning of his career in a rural school on how he can effectively organize his work.

Hilton, Ernest. Rural school management. New York, American Book Co. [1949] 278 p.

A careful liberal discussion of rural school management in America for multiple-course schools. This is not restricted to the schools but includes both their relationship to and the manner in which they may best serve the local community. Two interesting appendices are given, one giving suggested daily programmes, the other dealing with suitable building plans.

Imperia. Centro Didattico Provinciale. Montagna sconosciuta. Imperia, Provveditorato agli studi di Imperia, 1952. 168 p.

A picture of the conditions of mountain schools in Italy, especially in the Province of Imperia. The several accounts which form this volume examine the problems of the mountain schools in their various aspects.

Lang, Ludwig, ed. Landschule und ländliche Erziehung in Österreich 2. unveränderte Auflage. Wien, Österreichischer Bundesverlag für Unterricht, Wissenschaft und Kunst, 1949. 314 p.

A collection of addresses delivered at a nation-wide conference held at Vienna in 1947, to study ways and means to reform the rural schools in Austria.

Lowth, Frank J. Everyday problems of the country teacher. A textbook and a handbook of country-school practice. New York, Macmillan, 1936. 625 p., illus.

Practical but rather limited solutions are suggested for the immediate problems of the rural teacher of the 1930's.



Mather, Ambrose T. Rural school encyclopaedia. Melbourne, H. A. Evans educational book-seller, 1927.

This book is interesting as reflecting the somewhat limited outlook and the practical management of the Victorian small school organization of this period. Time-tables, details of organization and equipment and suggested procedures are discussed.

Mory, F. Enseignement individuel et travail par équipes. Paris, Bourrellier, 1950. 126 p.

Contains suggestions supported by examples on how to provide for pupils' independent study and group activities in one-teacher schools.

National education association of the United States. Department of rural education. Organization of curriculum for one-teacher schools. Washington, D.C., N.E.A., 1933. 44 p. (Bulletin, February 1933)

Quotes examples of methods used by different States to solve the problem, and on the basis of these makes concrete suggestions to assist the rural teacher.

Olson, Clara M. and Fletcher, Norman D. Learn and live. New York, Alfred P. Sloan foundation, 1946. 101 p.

An account of experimental curriculum planning. Experimental small schools in backward areas had their programmes built about the economic necessities of food, clothing and shelter. How these programmes provided a means of improving local living standards with the materials at hand is discussed.

Sainz, Fernando. El método de proyectos en las escuelas rurales. 2a ed., Buenos Aires, Editorial Losada, S.A., 1950. 155 p. (Publicaciones de la Revista de Pedagogía, Director Lorenzo Luzuriaga. La escuela activa. 7)

Two points are discussed: the necessity for establishing a close relationship between the child and his environment; and the value to the child of learning from his own activities. The plan described in the book organizes school life around farm land annexed to the school. Basic subjects and skills are taught in the context of the problems raised by maintenance of the school farm. The ultimate goal is not to teach agriculture but to use it as a means of applying activity methods.

Strobel, Anton. Die Arbeitsweise der Landschule. 2. Auflage. Aonauworth, Verlag Ludwig Auer, Cassianum /1949/ 137 p.

The author was a teacher in one-class schools for 11 years and acquired a wide experience of rural education in various provinces of pre-war Germany. His book is intended to help other rural teachers to find solutions to their problems.

United States institute of inter-American affairs, Division of education. Teachers' handbook for use of teachers in rural elementary schools; developed through the collaboration of Latin American and United States educators under the direction of Ann Nolan Clark. Washington, D.C., Gov. print. off., 1953. 149 p.

A comprehensive handbook intended for rural teachers in country communities and in training colleges of Latin America, discusses the personal qualifications of the teacher, his rôle in the community as well as giving practical suggestions on class organization, teaching techniques and materials related to community needs.

Weyrich, Josef. Organisatorische und methodische Orientierung über die landlichen Versuchsschulen im Lande Salzburg. Schuljahr 1948-49. Salzburg-Maxglan, Verlag Etzendorfer, 1950. 109 p.

Describes an important educational experiment in Austria, based on the recommendations of the 1947 Vienna conference on rural education. Nine two- and three-class schools were created in the Province of Salzburg, where specially trained teachers developed an improved programme in which stress is laid on helping children to understand their rural environment and to develop a community sense.

The first part of the book deals with questions related to school organization; in the second part detailed programmes are given with practical instructions for teaching each of the main subjects: religion, geography, history, nature study, mother tongue, arithmetic, etc.



Wofford, Kate V. Modern education in the small rural school. New York, Macmillan, 1938. 582 p.

This is a practical approach to those problems which make teaching in a small school different and difficult. Concrete detailed suggestions are made on the solution of the many immediate problems of management and teaching in these schools.

### III. Additional References

Everett, Marcia, ed. The rural supervisor at work. Washington, D.C., National education association of the United States of America, Department of rural education, 1949. 242 p. (its yearbook, 1949).

Discusses the rôle of the supervisor of rural schools and gives a number of examples showing how the supervisor can become part of the life of the school counselling teachers and working with the children and parents.

The latter half of this yearbook is directed more to administrators and educational leaders in rural areas. By means of illustrative cases several questions are considered: how supervisory services may be set up and developed, what part may be played by local authorities, teacher training centres and other agencies.

National council of chief State school officers. Planning rural community school buildings. Prepared under the supervision of Frank W. Cyr and Henry H. Linn. New York, Bureau of publications, Teachers' college, Columbia university, 1949. 162 p.

A well-illustrated publication intended to show, through specific plans, good rural school buildings capable of catering for the educational needs of the children and of the community. Suggestions are also given on the steps which should be followed in planning a building of this type.

Stonecipher, Ernest E. School buildings, grounds, and equipment for elementary schools in small school systems. Pittsburg, Kans., State teachers' college, 1948. 68 p.

Report of a committee which studied the characteristics of good rural school buildings of various sizes. Floor plans and layouts of school grounds are presented with texts to explain the nature and purpose of each.

Unesco. The training of rural school teachers by M. B. Laurencio Filho, L. A. Creedy, E. A. Pires and Isidro Castillo. Paris, Unesco, 1953. 164 p.

Contains four studies on rural teacher training in Brazil, Gold Coast, India and Mexico.

Wofford, Kate V., ed. Education of teachers for rural America. Washington, D.C., National education association of the United States of America, Department of rural education, 1946. 142 p. (its yearbook, 1946).

An attempt to state what kind of teachers the people of rural America want and need and what preparation such teachers should undergo.











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